TOWARD A BALANCED VIEW OF CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP

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14. ABSTRACT

Americans idolize leaders, especially charismatic ones. Charismatic leaders, in particular, have many favorable qualities ascribed to them by their followers because they incite the passion of those they lead through their evaluation of the status quo, innovation, empowerment of those followers, vision and the communication of their vision. The last decade in the Army created an environment in which charismatic leaders could thrive as the situation that the military, and the nation, found itself in was anything but status quo. By analyzing manner of speech to classify division commanders as charismatic or not and further examining their behavior through the use of interviews, this thesis found a correlation between charisma and the impact of a leader on his followers and organization. Furthermore, analysis of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire in comparison to the Multi-Source Assessment Feedback, shows that charisma can be identified early in one's career which may allow the Army the opportunity to develop charismatic leaders in such a way to build on their strengths while helping them avoid pitfalls.

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ABSTRACT

TOWARD A BALANCED VIEW OF CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP, by MAJ
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Americans idolize leaders, especially charismatic ones. Charismatic leaders, in particular, have many favorable qualities ascribed to them by their followers because they incite the passion of those they lead through their evaluation of the status quo, innovation, empowerment of those followers, vision and the communication of their vision. The last decade in the Army created an environment in which charismatic leaders could thrive as the situation that the military, and the nation, found itself in was anything but status quo. By analyzing manner of speech to classify division commanders as charismatic or not and further examining their behavior through the use of interviews, this thesis found a correlation between charisma and the impact of a leader on his followers and organization. Furthermore, analysis of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire in comparison to the Multi-Source Assessment Feedback, shows that charisma can be identified early in one's career which may allow the Army the opportunity to develop charismatic leaders in such a way to build on their strengths while helping them avoid pitfalls.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Overview

In order to understand what type of leadership results in success, researchers from business and academia have examined many aspects of leadership. In recent decades, the idea of transformational leadership captured much of the research as this style of leadership was seen to build trust and develop motivation in the employees of an organization (Avolio, Bass, and Jung 1999, 460). As researchers strove to characterize what it means to be a transformational leader, three factors developed: charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Carless 1998, 354; Avolio et al. 1999, 444-445). Of these factors, charisma was seen as the central component of transformational leadership (Avolio, Bass, and Jung 1999, 444).

Given the primacy of charismatic leadership, this thesis aims to discover the full spectrum of consequences that charismatic leaders have on their followers. Previous research has shown how charisma can be identified through the words that leaders use. The present research will look at the leadership of the United States Army's active divisions through the lens of charismatic leadership in order to develop a more complete understanding of the correlation between this trait and the impact of the leaders on their followers in the divisions in which they served.

Ideal Leadership

Charisma is an oft-cited trait for anyone who has some ability to influence and inspire those with whom they come in contact and rarely is any consideration given to

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what is actually meant by the term. This is readily seen in popular press as those with charisma get much more camera time than those without it. The preference that is placed on charisma also applies to leaders in the western world and charisma is valued over other leadership styles such as involving others in making and implementing decisions or being team-oriented (Northouse 2010, 353).

The ideal leadership style sought in a society varies based on the culture in which followers are raised. Americans, along with some other cultures, romanticize the concept of leadership and consider leadership to be the most important element of organizational success (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta 2004, 5). It is no surprise then, that in the idealistic view of leadership, charisma is not only the most in demand trait for Anglo-Saxons, of which Americans are a subset, but is more in demand here than by any other culture (House et al. 2004, 42-45). The contrarian view, held by societies previously dominated by charismatic dictators such as in Germany and Mexico, is a distaste for charismatic leadership and strong reservations and suspicions of these types of leaders (House et al. 2004, 61).

The present study only analyzes a population of American Army officers. The previous research supports the assumption that charismatic leadership will be favored over other styles of leadership in this culture; a similar study of military leaders in other cultures may not result in the same findings, as charisma is less valued. Since charismatic leaders are sought within the Army, the question becomes, Why? What do those who have an interest in the success of the Army expect of these leaders? To look at this, the present research seeks to answer two questions.

Primary Research Question

Is there a correlation between the charisma of division commanders and their impact on their followers and organizations?

Secondary Research Question

Can charismatic leaders be identified earlier in their careers, prior to demonstrated success?

Assumptions

In order to establish the charisma of generals who served as division commanders, this study analyzes the communications of these gentlemen. While it is possible that the speeches analyzed may have been crafted by speechwriters as opposed to being written primarily by the general officer, good speech writers know the communication styles in which their bosses share information and try to write in the style natural for those bosses, including both content and connection with the audience. As in presidential speeches analyzed by previous research, it is assumed that even when speechwriters a speech for a general officer, the general has the final determination of the tone and way in which the information is passed to his audience. The word choice is intentional on the part of the general in order to convey the information in some way.

Definitions

Charisma: Research suggests that charisma is an endowment of some exceptional quality, whether that quality is actually present or is merely perceived (Beyer 1999, 577; Weber 1947, 328; Kirkpatrick and Locke 1996, 36). This quality is often a result of an

ideological tie between people and is demonstrated through one's creativity, intelligence, magnetism, and confidence that lead to respect (Burke and Brinkerhoff 1981, 281).

Charismatic Leadership: Charismatic leadership is perceived in three categories: a product of relationships, outcomes, and a complex set of attributes of the leader (Burke and Brinkerhoff 1981, 283; House 1999, 564). The first of these, that is charismatic leadership as the product of the relationship between the leader and follower, ultimately relies on the ideological tie that unites the two together toward a common goal. The second, the outcomes, is the results of this relationship or the accomplishment of the goal. However, the attributes of the leader are in many ways independent of the followers and implies the endowment of certain qualities. In reality, the follower is involved in this case as well, though the leader's possession of these values is largely a result of whether or not the followers perceive that the leader has these qualities.

While the first two definitions of charismatic leadership require a level of success before being able to classify a leader as charismatic or not, the third definition opens the possibility of recognizing this trait earlier in one's career. The presence of these attributes can be measured through five behaviors: evaluation of the status quo, change through innovation, empowerment of followers, vision, and communication of vision.

Limitations

Due to the nature of this research, time is a major limiting factor. Because of this limitation, archival data was used to conduct the research. In order to classify the examined leaders on their charisma, speeches found using the internet were coded. Because the communications used were limited to what was publically available, comparisons between them are dissimilar in content as they contain a variety of themes

delivered to a range of audiences. Additional depth into the leadership styles of the gentlemen evaluated was gained through analyzing available interviews conducted by the Combat Studies Institute. These interviews were used to gain an understanding of the relationship between the leaders and their followers and organizations. The use of archival data leads to some potential issues in data availability. The data available may have potential holes, resulting in an inability to fully answer the research question.

A threat to internal validity is the impact of confounding variables. Charismatic leadership can be correlated with positive and negative impacts on followers and organizations, but charismatic leaders cannot be determined to be the cause of follower and organizational action based on this non-experimental study. Because other variables such as the context, the characteristics of the followers, or other characteristics of the leaders are not being controlled, it is impossible to state that charismatic leadership causes any sort of outcome in this study.

The generalizability of this study is limited to general officers in the United States Army as these are the only leaders who were examined and are not a representative sample of any other population of leaders in organizations. DeGroot, Kiker, and Cross stated in their research that the impact of charismatic leaders may be larger in the military because of a "greater reliance on authoritarian leadership style in the military" (2000, 363). Not only are there potentially distinct differences between the leaders within the United States Army and other organizations, the Army has a unique culture which further restricts the ability to generalize the findings to other populations, including other organizations within the United States.

<u>Delimitations</u>

The general officers examined in this study consist of those who were in command of one of the ten active Army divisions on 11 September 2001 and those who assumed command from that group. This period was selected because crisis plays a role in the development of charisma (Beyer 1999, 577). Unlike other periods in which it would be necessary to look at personal crises in the lives of the leaders, the terrorist attacks on America on 11 September 2001 was a crisis in which every American was impacted. These senior leaders in the Army were undoubtedly impacted, as they understood what this meant for the reality of sending their Soldiers into combat in the coming months and years. Some of the division commanders in the 11 September cohort left command within a couple of months, leaving the leading of these Soldiers in combat up to the commanders who took the division from them.

The general officers who were in command on 11 September 2001 are: Ricardo Sanchez (1st Infantry Division), David McKiernan (1st Cavalry Division), Bantz Craddock (1st Armored Division), Russel Honoré (2nd Infantry Division), Walter Sharp (3rd Infantry Division), Benjamin Griffin (4th Infantry Division), Franklin Hagenbeck (10th Mountain Division), James Dubik (25th Infantry Division), John Vines (82nd Airborne Division), and Richard Cody (101st Airborne Division).

The general officers who assumed command from these gentlemen are: John R.S. Batiste (1st Infantry Division), Joseph Peterson (1st Cavalry Division), Martin Dempsey (1st Armored Division), John R. Wood (2nd Infantry Division), Buford Blount (3rd Infantry Division), Raymond T. Odierno (4th Infantry Division), Lloyd Austin (10th

Mountain Division), Eric T. Olson (25th Infantry Division), Charles Swannack (82nd Airborne Division), and David Patreaus (101st Airborne Division).

This group was further narrowed by the availability of speeches through the internet. The final ten officers studied were: Lieutenant General (Retired) Ricardo Sanchez, General (Retired) David McKiernan, Lieutenant General (Retired) James Dubik, General (Retired) Richard Cody, Lieutenant General (Retired) Joseph Peterson, General Martin Dempsey, Major General (Retired) Buford Blount, General Raymond Odierno, Brigadier General (Retired) Eric T. Olson, and General (Retired) David Petraeus.

<div align="center">Conclusion</div>

The purpose of this study is to look at the characteristic of charisma in leaders in the United States Army in order to get a more holistic view of the outcomes related to it as opposed to a skewed, optimistic view. The literature review seeks to explore the immense amount of data that supports the positive outcomes of charismatic leadership while exploring the ways in which it has been studied. It will also illustrate the limited research into the negative side of charismatic leadership. Finally, the literature review shows that questions are now being asked about identifying charismatic leaders before they are successful, but little research focuses on this question.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

History of Charismatic Leadership Research

Charismatic leadership is perceived in three broad categories in organizational

behavior research as: a product of relationships, outcomes, and a complex set of attributes

of the leader (Burke and Brinkerhoff 1981, 283; House 1999, 564). While two of these

categories require that the leader be successful, to a degree, before being identified as

charismatic, the third category, attributes, could allow for the discovery of charismatic

leaders even before they succeed. The attributes can be measured through the five

behaviors examined below.

Evaluation of Status Quo: Weber's earliest conceptions of charismatic leaders

looked at revolutions in which the charismatic leader came to power with a call to upset

the stability of institutions (1947, 71). More recent literature does not assert that a

revolution needs to be occurring for a charismatic leader to ascend to power, but does

emphasize a break from a traditional order (Pombeni 2008, 40). Charismatic leaders are

effective in gaining power because of their ability to recognize the needs of the followers

and change the thinking in order to meet those demands (Fiol, Harris, and House 1999,

458; Rowold and Laukamp 2009, 605).

Change through Innovation: Standing for nonconservative change in order to meet

the needs of followers, charismatic leaders are able to create the environment to

encourage innovation (Fiol, Harris, and House 1999, 455). Through setting high

expectations, providing the resources and support needed to achieve them, and

recognizing accomplishments, leaders further establish a culture that leads to radical changes (Kirkpatrick and Locke 1996, 39).

Empowerment of Followers, Building Self-esteem: Followers identify with the charismatic leader because he has demonstrated that he is able to break with a dissatisfying status quo and actually make an impact. Charismatics inspire those around them and have the power to modify the beliefs and values of followers in order to better align with the organization (Fiol, Harris, and House 1999, 459). Through creating this alignment between individuals and the collective, the leader is able to create the context to build self-efficacy through short-term gains that act to develop self-worth and self-esteem (Shea and Howell 1999, 391-392). Because the self-esteem of individuals is often tied to the performance of the group under charismatic leaders, the performance of the group is increased along with cohesion and satisfaction (House 1999, 565; DeGroot, Kiker, and Cross 2000, 362).

Vision: While the vision of any leader will address the goals and values of the organization, charismatic leaders' visions arouse followers' emotions through directly addressing their needs and values (Kirkpatrick and Locke 1996, 37). The inspiring vision that results is idealistic in its goals that provokes the loyalty of the followers through creating an heroic image of their leader (House 1999, 564, 569; Rowold and Laukamp 2009, 603; Weber 1947, 328).

Communicating the Vision: Fiol, Harris, and House (1999) built off House's previous study of United States presidents in order to determine if there is a difference in the way in which charismatic versus non-charismatic leaders communicate. Given twentieth century presidents through Ronald Reagan, who had previously been classified

as either charismatic or not, they found that there are distinct differences in the way that charismatics communicate.

The research showed that in the early stages of their leadership, charismatic leaders use the word Not far more often than they do in later stages (Fiol, Harris, and House 1999, 471). Negation is used to break the frame that the followers are currently in, to establish a need to change the future of the organization. Additionally, charismatics are more likely than non-charismatics to use inclusive language, words such as We and Us as opposed to I or Me (Fiol, Harris, and House 1999, 472). By including the audience in their speech, they are allowing the audience to be involved, and ultimately to share in the success of the leader and the organization. Finally, they found that charismatics routinely used higher levels of abstraction, referring to human ideals as opposed to individuals, more often than non-charismatics (Fiol, Harris, and House 1999, 474). This higher level of abstraction increases ambiguity that expands the space to create room for the audience to align their values with those of the leader.

Charismatic Leadership

The first behavior, the ability to evaluate the status quo, relates to the idea that charismatic leaders look for opportunities to improve the organization as opposed to resting on its laurels (Conger, Kanungo, and Menon 2000, 748; Rowold and Laukamp 2009, 604). The idea is that charismatic leaders will have a large impact on their organization that will require them to change the organization through innovation. However, charismatic leaders cannot accomplish this change on their own; they must empower their followers in order to make this revolutionary change happen (Conger, Kanungo, and Menon 2000, 749; Degroot, Kiker, and Cross 2000, 358; Rowold and

Laukamp 2009, 605; Shea and Howell 1999, 377). This empowerment can be accomplished through building self-esteem and considering the needs of the followers. Charismatic leaders are role models within their organizations, engaging in exemplary behavior and taking personal risk which aids in building followers' self-esteem (Conger, Kanungo, and Menon 2000, 749; Rowold and Laukamp 2009, 605).

The last two behaviors of charismatic leaders are perhaps the most influential and the most likely to be called to mind when discussing such leaders. Charismatic leaders are visionaries (Conger, Kanungo, and Menon 2000, 749; House 1999, 564; Kirkpatrick and Locke 1996, 37; Rowold and Laukamp 2009, 605). Their visions demonstrate their goals and values and demonstrate a moral commitment to these values. How they communicate this vision is the final behavior of charismatic leaders (Rowold and Laukamp 2009, 605). The ability to create an emotional bond through communication which creates a tendency for followers to transcend their own self-interests is unmatched in non-charismatic leaders (DeGroot, Kiker, and Cross 2000, 357; Eatwell 2006, 143).

Theoretical Framework: Social Identity Theory

Why do people align themselves with charismatic leaders even if they are seriously flawed? Social identity theory helps to more fully answer this question by taking a hard look at motivations to identify with a group. When people are uncertain about themselves or the social world, they have a need to enhance their self-esteem in order to achieve distinctiveness.

The last decade in the Army created an environment in which charismatic leaders could thrive as the situation that the military, and the nation, found itself in was anything but status quo. Uncertainty creates psychological insecurity that leaves people susceptible

to influence as they seek order and predictability (Weber 1947, 71). Membership in a group lends this predictability so people are motivated to join a group, any group, where they have accessibility and there is a perceived fit (Hornsey 2008, 208; Grant and Hogg 2012, 538). Joining a group allows followers to categorize their world to not only cognitively organize it, but to define themselves within that world (Ashforth and Mael 1989, 21; O'Fallon and Butterfield 2011, 119). Further delineation among the group can be based on department, job, or closeness to the leader. If people can be brought onto a charismatic leader's team, they will do anything necessary to ensure their position in that inner circle as it further increases their own esteem.

Social identity theory posits one's self concept as a continuum between intrapersonal and intergroup, showing that our identities consist of both, and the extent to which each influences us varies between people based on their desire for a positive and secure self-concept (Hornsey 2008, 207). The willingness, then, for some people to follow flawed leaders has to do with their need to gain approval and recognition to enhance self-esteem (Ashforth and Mael 1989, 22; Hogg 2001, 187). Maslow's motivation model supports the idea that esteem needs, approval, and recognition must be met before a person can grow to reach self-actualization (Maslow 1943, 382). Identifying oneself with a charismatic leader has less to do with internalizing the message then, and more to do with a desire to meet basic needs (Ashforth and Mael 1989, 27-28). As one's identification shifts to become less self-focused and more group-focused, the depersonalization that occurs leads an individual to think and act in ways that are perceived as more prototypical for the group (Hogg 2001, 187; Hornsey 2008, 208; O'Fallon and Butterfield 2011, 119).

As the group identity is integrated with one's self-concept, group success becomes tantamount to personal success which leads to internalization of group norms (Hornsey 2008, 210; Blader and Tyler 2009, 446; O'Fallon and Butterfield 2011, 119). Three factors increase people's tendency to identify with a group: distinctiveness, prestige of the group, and salience of the out-group (Ashforth and Mael 1989, 34). Distinctiveness of the group's values and practices are what make the group stand out from the noise that is the rest of the social world, and what, especially in times of uncertainty, draw people to organizations with clear structures and goals (Ashforth and Mael 1989, 24; Hogg 2001, 187-188; Grant and Hogg 2012, 539). It can be argued that many people join the military because of its distinctiveness in our society, but even within this environment, many people aim to further distinguish themselves through identification with particular units or leaders.

The prestige of the distinct group is imperative as the motivation for affiliating with a group has much to do with self-esteem; if a particular salient group for an individual has prominence, the tendency to identify with that group increases (Ashforth and Mael 1989, 25; Grant and Hogg 2012, 539). Esteem is a major motivator for human beings because people have a need for a stable, high evaluation of themselves, without which we are left feeling weak and helpless (Maslow 1943, 381). If individuals have access to a prestigious leader, their likelihood of following him or her increases as their basic need for esteem can be achieved, a need that must be satisfied in order to eventually reach self-actualization.

Finally, identification with a group is increased when a salient out-group is present, when an Us versus Them mentality can be established (Ashforth and Mael 1989,

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25). Eatwell refers to a charismatic leader's Manichean demonization of others; a charismatic leader creates a salient out-group through targeting his enemies (2006, 146). The alternative, not conforming to the leader and the group, would lead not only to a drop in esteem, but also to potential maltreatment and oppression, as one becomes a member of the targeted out-group.

Leaders of organizations are highly influential based on their position that allows for a heightened degree of influence over the followers, but charismatic leaders have an even more disproportionate level of influence based on the attraction that their followers feel toward them because of the attributes bestowed upon them (Hogg 2001, 188; Weber 1947, 328). Social identity theory's self-concept continuum explains clearly why people would follow even a flawed charismatic leader as the followers' self-concept is tied to the group performance and the continued acceptance by the leader. The reality of followers not only following flawed charismatic leaders, but aiding in their behaviors which may run counter to the goals of the organization, begins to make sense with an understanding of how esteem motivates people.

<div align="center">Measuring Charisma</div>

Based on the research into transformational leadership, Avolio and Bass set out to measure the three dimensions of this leadership style through the development of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. This questionnaire measures the three dimensions of transformational leadership: charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, as well as the dimensions of transactional leadership: contingent reward, active-management-by-exception, and passive-avoidant leadership (Avolio, Bass, and Jung 1999, 457). The research conducted to develop this evaluation tool included studies

of Army officer populations and does apply to the military today (Avolio, Bass, and Jung 1999, 442).

The Army continues to provide feedback to leaders and does so today using the Multi-Source Assessment Feedback (MSAF) that allows multi-source feedback to a rated leader. Multi-source feedback, often called 360-degree feedback, rose in popularity in the 1990s, and is used by ninety percent of Fortune 100 companies (Morgeson, Mumford, and Campion 2005, 196). This form of feedback is so beneficial to profit-seeking corporations as well as to the Army is because of its value as a developmental tool for leaders that can result in increased self-awareness (Yukl and Lepsinger 1995, 45; Antonioni 1996, 26; Morgeson, Mumford, and Campion. 2005, 200).

In addition to increasing a leader's self-awareness, multi-source feedback positively effects the organization. Job performance was shown to increase for low and medium performers as the multi-source feedback signaled which areas were important to the organization and enabled managers to set specific goals (Morgeson et al. 2005, 199). Smither, London, and Reilly found that goals set in response to feedback received resulted in behavior change (2005, 52). In turn, this behavior change led to increases in ratings from subordinates that resulted in increased subordinate satisfaction and engagement (Smither, London, and Reilly 2005, 35).

The MSAF used by the Army allows leaders to know how they are performing across an array of leadership dimensions important to their profession in relation to the Army Leadership Requirements Model (figure 1). The MSAF questions, answered by both the rated leader and others, are based on the Leader Behavior Scale 2.0 that was developed based on the competencies in the requirements model.

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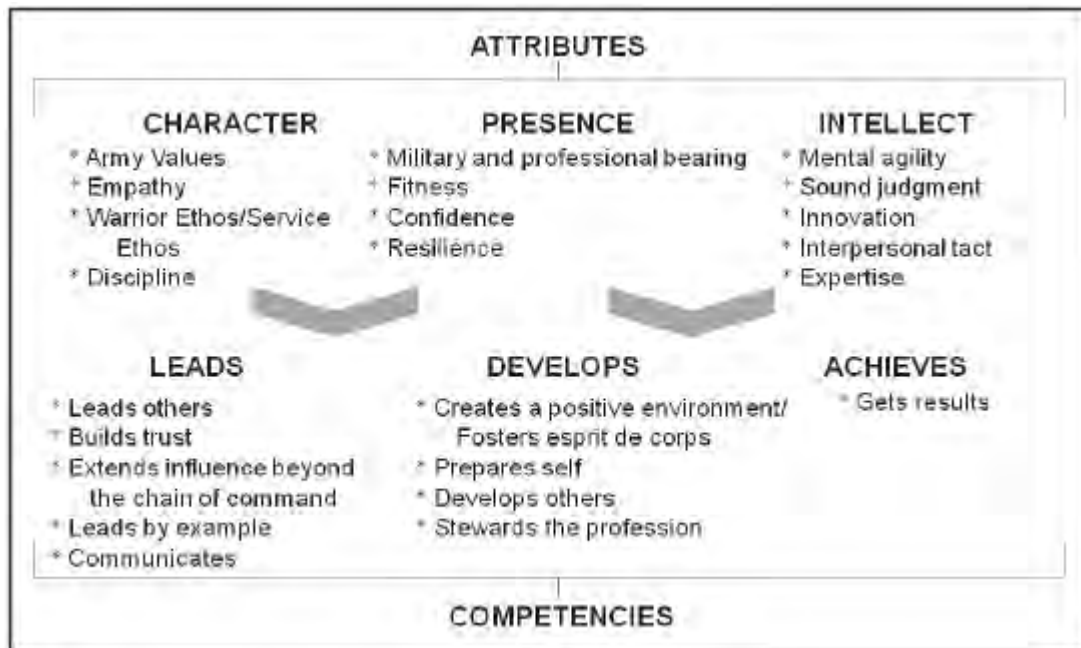
Figure 1.   The Army Leadership Requirements Model

Source: Headquarters, Department of the Army, Army Doctrine Publication 6-22 *Army Leadership* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, August 2012), 5.

Using this model, the Army does not intentionally set out to measure the charisma of leaders, though it appears that many of the attributes and behaviors it expects of its leaders align with the concept of charismatic leadership. Further study of the measurement of these behaviors through the MSAF needs to be conducted in order to determine if the Army is measuring charisma. The consequence of understanding the presence, or lack thereof, of this leadership characteristic could be powerful on the organization that seeks it.

Common Ground in Current Research

The fascination with charismatic leadership in the western world leaves a large body of work discussing the benefits of such leadership. Charismatic leaders are role

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models whom followers want to emulate because they are admired, respected, and trusted (Burke 2008, 233; Northouse 2010, 342-343). Additionally, they have high standards of ethical and moral conduct that increases confidence and esteem of followers while focusing follower energy around the organization's goals and needs (Burke 2008, 233; Northouse 2010, 356-357; Peltier 2010, 316-317). However, the scholarly literature on charismatic leadership in both managerial and psychological fields largely ignores the potential negative repercussions other than hindsight reviews of case studies.

While much work has been done to clearly define what is meant by charismatic leadership, the heroic portrayal of such leaders coupled with the requirement for success prior to being identified as such, limit the complete understanding of charismatic leadership. This gap in the research makes it incredibly difficult to identify charismatic leaders earlier in their careers.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Overview

The methods used to explore the primary and secondary questions are discussed

in this chapter. The plethora of research surrounding charismatic leadership shows the

numerous positive outcomes associated with charismatic leadership. This research differs

in that it aims to look at not only the positive relationships, but also the negative ones

with the goal of a more realistic view of charismatic leaders as opposed to the heroic

leaders they are so often perceived as. The primary research question being addressed is:

Is there a correlation between the charisma of division commanders and their impact on

their followers and organizations?

Data Collection Methods

The proposed research will be a mixed-methods approach. The author will begin

to answer the primary research question using a quantitative approach through content

analysis of the division commanders' speeches and writings in order to determine

whether they can be classified as charismatic leaders. A qualitative analysis of each

general's performance on the five behaviors demonstrated by charismatic leaders will

then be conducted through assessing what has been said and written about them by their

followers and others who observed their leadership style.

In order to find communications of the studied population, an attempt was made

to reach out to several Army organizations. None of the organizations contacted kept

speeches of division commanders. Due to the lack of availability from official channels,

speeches found on the internet were included in the study. This limited the population being studied from the original twenty, down to ten. This method of collection made it difficult to find speeches from when the officers were in division command; many speeches are from later in the officer's career. A full list of the officers included as well as the communications coded can be found in Appendix A.

Further depth of the division commanders' leadership styles and decision-making processes will be examined through reviewing interviews conducted by the Combat Studies Institute in support of the Operational Leadership Experiences in the Global War on Terror collection. This collection of interviews includes perspectives from a range of followers on their experiences in combat. While the interviews did not necessarily specifically ask about the leadership of the officers being studied, the insights made available through what the interviewees chose to discuss does shed light on leadership principles.

<div align="center">Data Analysis Method</div>

The speeches and writings of division commanders were coded in a similar manner to the presidential speeches examined by Fiol, Harris, and House (1999). The use of the word Not was counted, inclusive properties—whether or not the audience is included in the thought—and the level of abstraction were analyzed.

As discussed previously, charismatic leaders evaluate the status quo and change through innovation. It makes sense then that charismatic leaders would use the word Not more often when communicating because it clearly breaks the mold between what was and what they envision the future to be (Fiol, Harris, and House 1999, 461). In the analysis, the number of Nots in a communication were tallied.

Using inclusive properties such as We and Us as opposed to You and They or Me brings the audience into the communication as a part of the thought. These words are deliberate and serve to build trust with the audience to ultimately empower them to serve as change agents toward the leader's vision (Fiol, Harris, and House 1999, 462). Furthermore, including the audience in the communication provides them with affirmation and endorsement in the leader's innovation (Fiol, Harris, and House 1999, 462). As explained through social identity theory, if the leader can bring the audience on-board to the point that they are invested in the success of the organization, the followers will do their best to ensure that success. In the analysis, each logical sentence was analyzed to determine if the sentence was associative, inclusive, or disassociative. If both associative and disassociative words were used in a single sentence, the sentence was classified as associative.

Finally, the level of abstraction is important in that as speech becomes more abstract, room is created in the ambiguity for the audience to see their own values in those of the leader (Fiol, Harris, and House 1999, 463). When looking at the level of abstraction, the communications were analyzed on four levels, from least abstract to most abstract:

Level 1: individuals, particular groups, things

Level 2: particular things or events

Level 3: one's country or nation, including the people

Level 4: the world, foreign countries, relationships, and universal beliefs

Once a determination of leader charisma was made, a correlation was made to general performance measures. One performance measure evaluated was continued

success in the Army as determined by promotions and higher levels of command. Promotions and higher levels of command, as measures of success, can be correlated to the charisma of division commanders. While the presence of a correlation is interesting, it must be noted that this research cannot show that charisma was the cause of greater success in the Army. Additionally, data was collected on the performance of the divisions, as told by those who interacted with the leaders, in order to determine if outcomes differed in relationship to the charisma of the leaders.

All speeches were coded blindly; the researcher did not have names associated with the speeches while coding in order to alleviate any expectancy bias. Additionally, all speeches were coded twice to assess the reliability of the rater's judgments, particularly in relationship to the inclusivity and abstraction factors. This test-retest reliability procedure was conducted with an average of one week between coding in order to ensure there was minimal crossover in remembering the previous coding.

The interviews were analyzed from two perspectives. The researcher was looking at both the charismatic behaviors of the leaders as previously defined (evaluation of the status quo, change through innovation, empowerment of followers, vision, and communication of vision) as well as the relationships of the leaders with their followers. The relationship with followers was observed through the lens of the social-identification theory including identification with the unit through distinctiveness, prestige and a salient out-group, and one's self-concept tied to the success of the organization.

The MSAF questions were analyzed in comparison to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire in order to determine whether the Army is asking the right questions in order to identify charismatic leaders earlier in their careers.

A major implication of the findings of this study could be a reexamination of the emphasis placed on charisma in our leaders. If the outcomes are not universally good, perhaps there is reason to think through the attributes assigned to them as well as the blind loyalty that they often enjoy. On the other hand, if charismatic leaders do produce some exceptional results for the organization, it would make sense for the Army to want to capitalize on this trait.

Early identification of charismatic leaders could allow the Army to develop these leaders in such a way that they can build on their strengths while helping them avoid the pitfalls. Antonakis, Fenley, and Liechti found that charisma could be taught (2011, 392). This could mean that leaders who show promise in many other ways may be coached to become more charismatic, potentially leading to greater outcomes for the organization.

Because this is a correlational research design, the results of this study are limited to correlating charismatic leadership with outcomes; one cannot conclude from this study that charismatic leadership caused any of the outcomes found because of any of the leaders examined. This main limitation is a result of the third variable problem. Other variables in style of leadership were not controlled; therefore, the results could be attributed to the level of their participative nature of leadership, team building, or any number of other variables. Future experimental research would have to be conducted to determine whether charismatic leadership causes these outcomes.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS

In order to classify the division commanders as charismatic leaders or not, the assumption was that there was an observable difference in the way that these types of leaders communicate. In order to analyze the communications, simple comparisons were made between all coded speeches for all three elements of speech: negation, inclusion, and abstraction. Upon review of this information, it became apparent that sample sizes were not the same and a least squares means test was conducted to adjust for the imbalance between the charismatic and non-charismatic group. Upon determination of the groupings, a t-test was conducted in order to determine the significance in the differences in the usage of the elements of speech. Table 1 shows this data in detail.

The current research found statistically significant differences for communication styles of charismatics versus non-charismatics. Specifically, charismatic leaders include their listeners in their communication at a much higher rate than non-charismatic leaders; they seek to form those connections through their word choice. Additionally, charismatic leaders communicate at a higher level of abstraction than their non-charismatic counterparts do. This higher level of abstraction focuses on ideals (L4) as opposed to events (L2), allowing the audience the room to align their own values with those of the leader.

Table 1.   Statistical Analysis of Speech

| Variable | Group Mean | | p-value |
	Charismatic Leaders	Non-charismatic Leaders	
Negation	0.129	0.076	0.4912
Inclusion	0.461	0.175	0.0296*
Abstraction (L1)	0.229	0.343	0.0658
Abstraction (L2)	0.160	0.378	0.0075*
Abstraction (L3)	0.027	0.039	0.6738
Abstraction (L4)	0.577	0.219	0.0011*
Note: Significance is established at the level of .05 or better			

Source: Created by author.

Negation

Fiol, Harris, and House found that the usage of negation, or Not, in communications of charismatic leaders follows a curvilinear path, with more negation used earlier in a change process while the leader is working to break the audience's frame, than later when the leader is solidifying the new position (1999, 468). In the current research, the speeches analyzed were not limited to a certain point on the change process timeline. Of the available speeches, some were given at the beginning of a campaign or command, such as General Petraeus' as he took command of International Security Assistance Force, while others were at the end of a campaign, such as General Dempsey's as the United States ended operations in Iraq. While some leaders determined to be charismatic used negation, others did not, likely because of the differing points in the change process that the speeches available were used. Due to this problem with

dissimilar speech, the findings on the use of negation in speeches was not significant
(p=.4912).

As seen in figure 2, those leaders who more effectively used negation are above
the line of regression. However, without statistical significance, this data is not useful in
helping to identify charismatic leaders from non-charismatics.
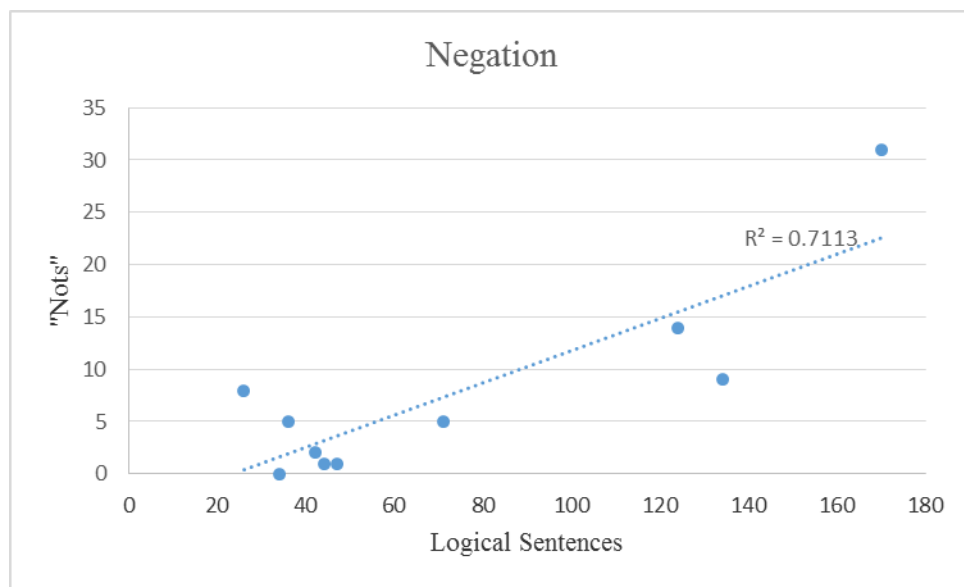
Figure 2.   Nots in Logical Sentences

Source: Created by author.

<u>Inclusion</u>

By including the audience in one's speech, the speaker is working to enhance the
listeners' self-esteem through making them a part of the message. Whether it is a speech
about a vision yet-to-be or about the accomplishments of the organization to date,
charismatic leaders ensure that they include their followers into their thinking and

speaking (p=.0296). Reading the speeches of charismatic versus non-charismatic leaders leaves one with distinct impressions, with differing levels of commitment to both the leader and the organization.

Figure 3 shows that half of the population studied used inclusion as a method to engage the listeners in the communication and attempt to connect the audience with the speaker's purpose. The statistically significant results of inclusion, paired with the analysis of those above the line of regression begin to categorize the charismatic leaders in the studied group.
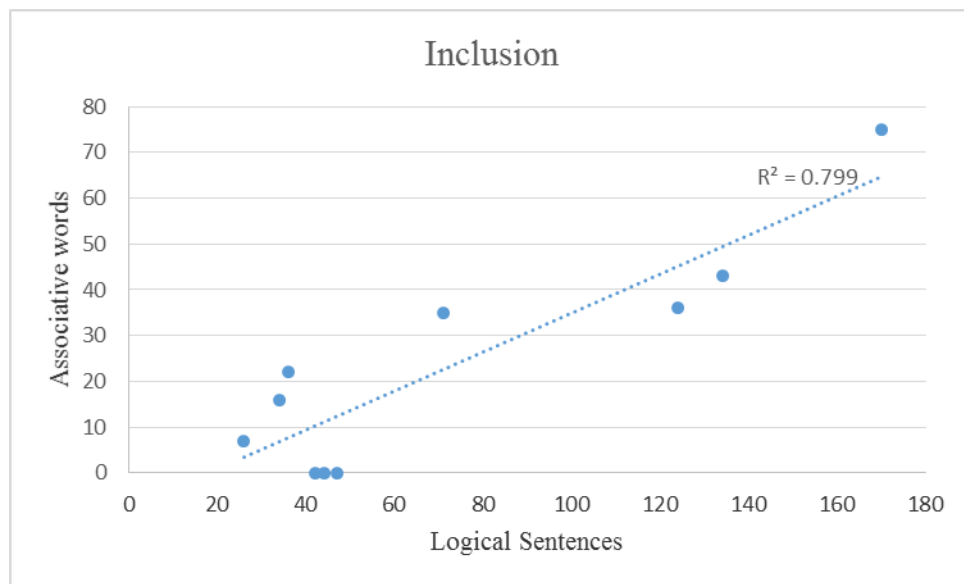
Figure 3.   Associative Words in Logical Sentences

Source: Created by author.

Abstraction

When leaders choose to talk about individuals or particular events, they leave little room for the audience to make themselves fit into the story. Leaders engage their audience with an opportunity to join them in the idea when they speak of more abstract concepts. Charismatic leaders speak in ways that allow their followers to interpret the meaning in their own way. Charismatic leaders talk of ideals ($p=.0011$), non-charismatic leaders talk of events ($p=.0075$).

When looking at the data in figures 4 and 5, coupled with the ability to include the listeners into the speeches as described above, the charismatic leaders clearly distinguish themselves from the non-charismatic leaders. Not only do the charismatics include their audiences in their speech, but also they speak of ideals instead of events, which truly allows their listeners to find their place in the leader's thinking and values.

Figure 4.   L2 Phrases in Logical Sentences

Source: Created by author.

Figure 5.   L4 Phrases in Logical Sentences

Source: Created by author.

Classifying Charismatic Leaders

Based on a review of the previous research in how charismatic leaders communicate and the statistically significant results in this study, those division commanders who were both inclusive in their communications and spoke at the highest level of abstraction were classified as charismatic for the purpose of this study. These charismatic leaders are: General (Retired) R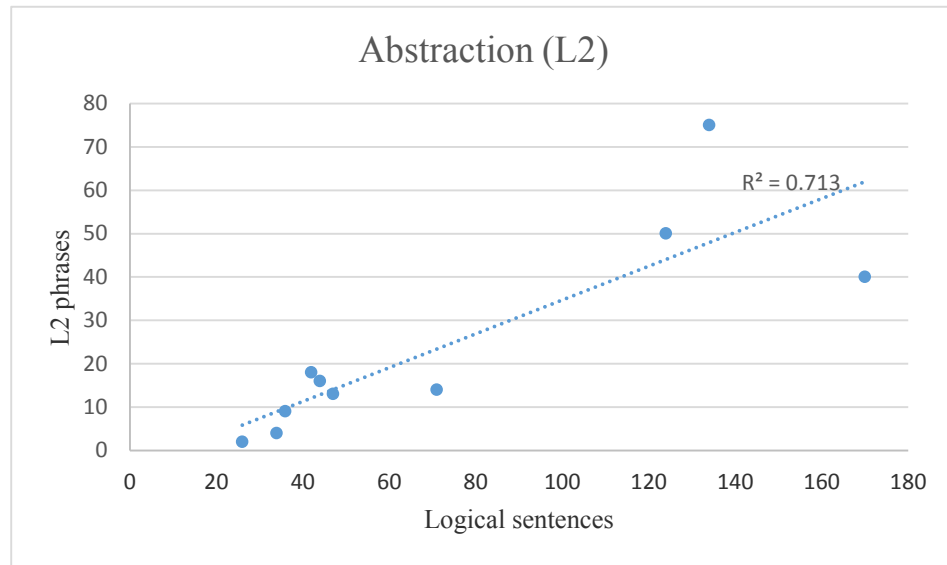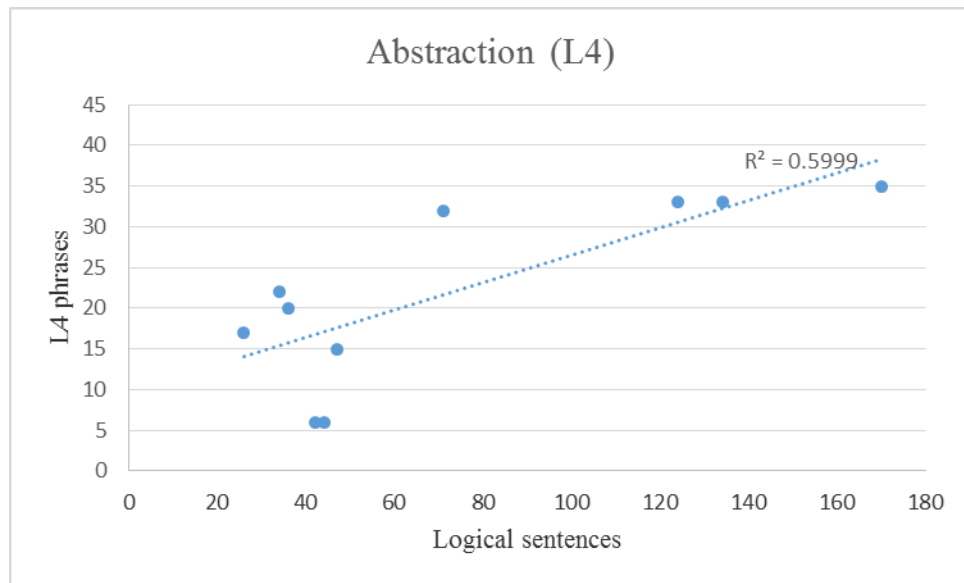ichard A. Cody, General Martin E. Dempsey, General (Retired) David D. McKiernan, and General (Retired) David H. Petraeus. The remaining general officers examined lacked the key communication characteristics of charismatics and were determined to be non-charismatic leaders.

Charismatic leadership is often examined as a Yes or No trait, a leader is either charismatic, or he is not. This may be too rigid a definition of charismatic leadership as it is possible to display some of the behaviors described previously without demonstrating them all. Although they did not meet the criteria to be categorized as charismatic leaders, General Raymond T. Odierno, Lieutenant General (Retired) James M. Dubik, and Lieutenant General (Retired) Ricardo S. Sanchez met some of the criteria. Each of these gentlemen were skilled at using association in their speeches, or including their audience in their thoughts. However, they spoke at the lower levels of abstraction, therefore not creating the room for their audience to find their own way to fit into the leaders' ideas.

Success of Leaders

How one defines success is very personal; success can be defined as having an impact, of attaining a certain rank or level of power, or of retiring by a certain age, among others. To measure the success of the general officers in this study, two publicly available data points were collected to see if there was a quantitative difference in the career

success of the charismatic versus non-charismatic leaders. The measures observed were highest military rank achieved and follow-on command positions.

The charismatic general officers all attained the rank of four-star general, currently the highest rank available to anyone serving in the United States Army. Whether serving as the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, the highest position in the United States military, or as the Commander of the International Security and Assistance Forces-Operation Enduring Freedom, responsible for not only United States forces, but forces of other nations as well, this senior rank comes with much authority and responsibility. Of the non-charismatic leaders, only one attained the rank of four-star general, General Raymond T. Odierno, and the average rank attained was not quite three-stars (average = 2.66 stars), meaning the average rank attained was major general. The differences in ranks attained was statistically significant (p=.0046).

If one was successful in a division command, it may follow that he would be given the opportunity to command again in the future. The United States Army tends to be command centric, with officers putting in time on staff while they wait and hope for another command. It is likely that the gentlemen studied desired future commands. While the charismatic leaders did command more than the non-charismatic (2.5 compared to 1.16), the differences between average future commands of the two groups was not statistically significant (p=.2259). Division command was the last significant job before retirement for two of the non-charismatics, begging the question of whether or not division command was how they measured success. Additionally, General Cody, a charismatic leader, never commanded again, but quickly rose to the position of Vice Chief of Staff of the Army.

Charismatic Leader Attributes in Action

Through a review of interviews conducted by the Combat Studies Institute in support of the Operational Leadership Experiences in the Global War on Terror collection, it was possible to add greater depth to the leaders analyzed. The interviews allowed an exploration of what was recalled of their leadership styles and decision-making processes by those who worked with the evaluated leaders in varying capacities. These interviews further allowed for qualitative analysis of the five behaviors of charismatic leaders: evaluation of the status quo, change through innovation, empowerment of followers, vision, and communicating the vision.

With imperfect information in combat situations, the majority of the leaders studied sought to gain better situational awareness and understanding by developing the situation using the personnel and technological resources they had available to them. There was no difference in the way the leaders accomplished this. Leaders used the technology they had available, moved around the battlefield, and kept in close communication with their subordinate commanders regardless of their level of charisma. Each leader seemed to do this in order to be able to effectively evaluate the status quo, the current situation, in order to determine the next steps to take to accomplish the mission. What the leaders saw as the mission was different, even in the same space and time, and this vision seemed to be one of the things that differentiated the charismatics from the non-charismatic leaders.

Evaluating the status quo led to differing thoughts about what needed to be done next, some felt the need to innovate and take the mission to the next step while others felt the need to contain the situation so that it did not deteriorate. When describing the initial

push into Iraq in 2003 and the subsequent looting, two non-charismatics' visions were apparently shortsighted. When describing the impact of then Major General Blount's thinking, one observer noted, "but the evidence suggested to me that the troops in Baghdad simply didn't have the mission to stop the looting, to help to reestablish the government, or provide a safe and secure environment" (Martin 2006, 9). A similar impact was seen in Major General Odierno's continued fight against looters as one of his liaisons stated that he "is busy with other stuff. He's not interested in administering CERP" (Arnold 2006, 9). As these two leaders evaluated the status quo, the conclusion they came to about what was next followed logically, as opposed to taking a creative or innovative leap toward a more successful future. They saw the immediate military or security threat, and saw the military solution as the best way to deal with that threat.

In contrast, Major General Petraeus only allowed half of his staff to focus on the fighting while he directed his plans section to focus on reconstruction (Kammerdiener 2006, 16). This plans section was not focused on a military solution at all, but looked to economic and political means available to lead to a better success in his area of operations. His mandate to turn his war planners away from planning battles to planning a successful post-conflict society was truly innovative in its time. He is a clear example of a charismatic leader using innovation in order to lead to radical changes in the environment.

Whether a leader is seeking to simply incrementally improve the status quo or revolutionize the environment through innovation, there are different ways to accomplish these end-states. It is possible for the leader to control the actions of his subordinates, and this may even be prudent in a combat environment when the leader may be the most

experienced and lives are on the line. However, it is also possible for the leader to relinquish control to his subordinate commanders in order to maintain his focus on a larger picture, to empower his followers.

Major General Blount is an example of a non-charismatic leader who was able to effectively empower his subordinates to fight the battles and accept prudent risk that gave him greater flexibility to move to where he felt he needed to be to have better awareness (Berdy 2006, 8; Perkins 2013, 30). However, his peers were far more likely to give task and purpose to subordinates, to reward the behavior that aligned with their guidance and disparage subordinate commanders who engaged the way that they saw fit for their environment in contradiction to the division commander's ideals (Coffey 2005, 8; Perry 2006, 6).

In comparison, the charismatic leaders were almost universally trusting of their subordinates and experienced no hesitation in empowering them to accomplish the mission. Major General Dempsey was innovative and yet not parochial, he allowed flexibility as the structure of the organization changed without fighting that things be done his way (Harris 2006, 9). General McKiernan was lauded for his ability to stay out of the tactical fight and remain at the operational level of battle, giving his commanders the freedom to fight the fight (Arnold 2005, 8-9). Major General Petraeus was also able to let go of his control in order to empower those around him. Unique to the stories offered of these generals, Major General Petraeus was acknowledged for his willingness to empower the Iraqis to "set the rules for who was going to run for the city council" (Arnold 2006, 13). The ability of the charismatic leaders to empower their followers not

only helped to build the self-esteem of the followers, but also increased their loyalty to the organization.

Transformational leaders provide a vision for their organization that creates an understanding for how their followers fit into the organization and empowers them to support the organization (Northouse 2010, 182-183). As discussed earlier, some visions are more forward thinking than others that allow leaders to take different approaches in the way that they solve the problems that their organizations face. Each leader evaluated in this study provided a vision to their subordinates, regardless of their charisma. Those who were not charismatic tended to focus their vision around events or environments such as thunder runs, reception, staging, onward-movement and integration, or the ability to stop the fighting (Berdy 2006, 10; Croft 2006, 4; Croot 2007, 5). Instead, the charismatic leaders focused on desired end-states, more abstract concepts that are difficult to measure, such as the accomplishment of the Army's mission and a stable Iraq (Harris 2006, 9; Kammerdiener 2006, 16-17). The more abstract visions of the charismatic leaders were better able to address the needs and values of the followers through inspiring them toward idealistic goals.

Although each leader had a vision, whether broad or narrow, there was a wide range in their ability to effectively communicate their vision to their followers. Some leaders were more able to create room for their followers to help them define the vision, to create an emotional bond with the vision. Major General Dempsey recognized the constraints that were placed on his followers and freed them from those constraints in order to get them to better understand his end-state (Nauman 2008, 9). General McKiernan effectively articulated his vision of what should be happening at the

operational level to his subordinates, giving them boundaries while also allowing them to figure out their place in that vision (Underhill 2006, 6). The less charismatic, guided their followers thinking, "steered the ship in a new direction" or created an understanding of "what he planned to do" (Croft 2006, 4; Rawlings 2006, 12; Woods 2006, 5). In the language used to describe how the non-charismatic leaders communicated their visions, the ability to deviate is limited as the leader's vision leaves little room for interpretation. Major General Petraeus was an exception here, as he is a charismatic leader who communicated his vision in a way very similar to the non-charismatics leaving one of his subordinates to state that he "deserves the credit" (Arnold 2006, 12). With an increase in the flexibility of the orders given, the charismatic leaders were more effective than the non-charismatics at aligning the followers' values with their own and provoking loyalty.

Charismatic leaders display five behaviors that demonstrate the complex set of attributes of the leaders. As described above, the charismatic leaders in this study largely demonstrated these five behaviors: evaluation of the status quo, change through innovation, empowerment of followers, vision and communicating the vision, while their non-charismatic peers were less likely to do so.

<center>The Relationship with Followers</center>

The behaviors carried out by the leaders have impacts on their followers and their organizations whether or not the leaders or the followers are aware of the fact. Because many Americans join the Army, in part, to be a part of something larger than themselves, it follows that they are looking to their service in the Army to help them round out their self-concept, and potentially bolster their self-esteem. The influence of the general

<center>35</center>

officers examined in this study on their followers is telling in light of the consideration of how much of one's identity is tied to being a Soldier.

The narratives in the Combat Studies Institute interviews showed across the board that subordinates were looking for approval and recognition in their work. This longing for a boost in one's self-esteem by their affiliation with a unit in combat was evident regardless of whether or not their leader was charismatic. Whether the behavior displayed by the follower was one of keeping one's ear to the ground to gain a general understanding or serving as a mole for the leader, the result was increased esteem as one was accomplishing the mission assigned (Berdy 2006, 5; Arnold 2006, 9). However, the difference between the actions was in whom the behavior was targeted to help. In the former example, it was to "build the organization;" the latter was to inform the leader (Berdy 2006, 5; Arnold 2006, 14).

Because service members do identify themselves with the organizations of which they are a part, it follows that the success of the unit reflects on them as a personal success. Major General Odierno was effective in tying these two potentially disparate goals together when he was able to engage the combat arms forces in the mission of deployment, which is typically seen as a logistic mission. He was able to make apparent that the division would be set up for failure if they did not take the operation of deployment seriously (Croft 2006, 7). His ability to shift the focus of the organization for the time made all involved recognize the need for this success in order to be postured to accomplish that which was forefront in their minds. Major General Dempsey also made clear this link between the success of the group to that of the individuals when he stated, upon being informed of their extension, "I don't like it any more than you do. I'm ready

to go home like everybody else, but we started a mission and the Army needs us to finish it so we are going to stay and fight" (Harris 2006, 9). In that simple expression, Major General Dempsey made it clear that they, as individual Soldiers, would not be successful until they accomplished the Army's mission while still showing empathy to the emotions they were all experiencing.

Identification with the Army is a part of the on-boarding process of the Army, a part of the basic training that all enlisted soldiers and officers go through. By creating an identity with the Army as a large organization, the Army is better able to inculcate its values and create cohesion. Identification with a smaller subset of the Army is another matter. Some units have historical appeal that distinguish them from others, such as being the Band of Brothers, and others have unique capabilities such as being the only balanced division. In order to increase followers' identity with the units, leaders capitalize on the distinctiveness of the organization, build the prestige of the unit, and create a salient out-group to further distinguish their group.

Whether it was from the uniqueness of their mission set, the danger of their operational environment, or their ability to set conditions going forward, the division commanders studied were able to engage their followers in identifying with the unit. The "speed and audacity" of the 3rd Infantry Division the inclusion through changing the in-group to "Task Force Iron Horse," or establishing superiority because while looting was occurring, "it wasn't the free for all that was happening down in the south," shows the various ways that all leaders try to build esprit de corps (Berdy 2006, 10; Croft 2006, 13; Arnold 2006, 8).

The last quote is an example of creating a salient out-group. While lauding the uniqueness and success of one's own organization does increase identification with the group and improve followers' self-concepts, it is far more powerful when one can posit that success as superior to a salient out-group. Major General Petraeus' ability to effectively communicate this to his division skyrocketed their commitment to him. This same behavior back-fired against Major General Sanchez as he put down 3rd Infantry Division's role in combat, because the fluidity of the environment eventually made them subordinate to him, and he responsible for them (Coffey 2005, 8). Major General Sanchez's use of a salient out-group ultimately led to offense and mistrust within his unit.

The leaders across the Army's active divisions were effective in building their subordinates' self-esteem through increasing identity with their units, meaning that the divisions were ultimately more successful because each soldier was invested in the success of the unit, as it was tantamount to his own success. Regardless of whether or not the leader was charismatic, followers in these divisions in both Iraq and Afghanistan were committed to the units they served. The difference in the charismatic versus non-charismatic leaders is in the followers' commitment to the leader.

While one interviewee said that Major General Olson was one of the greatest division commanders he had ever worked for, none of the other non-charismatic leaders received any sort of endorsement for their personal attributes (Visser 2006, 12). On the contrary, 3rd Infantry Division was commended for their action fighting in Baghdad, as opposed to Major General Blount's personal leadership (Martin 2006, 8). For the most part, the accolades for the victories of the units of the non-charismatic division commanders went to their divisions. There was a drastic difference though in the

characterization of the victories belonging to the divisions of the charismatic commanders.

Command Sergeant Major Ortiz-Torres thought, then Brigadier General, Dempsey "deserved four stars at the time" and Colonel Harris explained, "everybody sings his praises . . . because he is good" (Ortiz-Torres 2006, 12; Harris 2006, 9). General McKiernan was described as "an incredible tactician" with a "brilliant mind" and was, furthermore, "infectious and contagious" (Arnold 2005, 15; Underhill 2006, 6, 8). Finally, Major General Petraeus was not only described as the "meister of reconstruction" for his "foresight," but he was personally credited with the reconstruction of Iraq (Kammerdiener 2006, 5, 17; Arnold 2006, 12, 13).

The charismatic leaders in this study were not only able to get their followers to tie their identities to the divisions in which they were a part, but to them personally as leaders. The followers of these charismatic leaders had a vested interest in seeing their leaders succeed, above and beyond accomplishment of the mission in front of them and the success of the division.

<center>Practically Measuring Charisma</center>

An analysis comparing the questions in the MSAF with the charisma questions of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Appendix B) shows that the Army is measuring some components of charisma but leaving out others. This finding makes sense as the definition of Army leadership in Army Doctrine Publication 6-22, *Army Leadership,* is focused on outcomes or competencies of leadership, as opposed to attributes.

The MSAF emphasizes the collective mission through its evaluation of overall leadership, leading others and getting results, three of the categories that align with the Army Leadership Requirements Model. The MSAF also seeks to quantify whether or not leaders go beyond self-interest in how they develop leaders and create a positive environment. The observable, quantifiable, measurable behaviors of charismatic leaders are sought in the questions asked of raters on the MSAF. The seven-point Likert scale used in this test makes these behaviors easier to target than those discussed in this paper.

What is missing from the MSAF's potential measure of charisma is how the leaders make the followers feel. While communication is its own category of the MSAF, it is primarily focused on effectiveness, the leader's ability to create a shared understanding, to be understood. Charismatic leaders do more than this, they talk optimistically and enthusiastically, they express confidence in the way they create shared understanding. This difference in the way in which charismatic leaders communicate, compared to non-charismatic leaders, matters in its impact. Followers of charismatic leaders are proud of their leaders and respect them. These two components of the relationship between the leader and follower are not asked in the MSAF questionnaire.

<u>Conclusion</u>

While the communications analyzed begin to separate the charismatic leaders from those who are not charismatic, this is merely one piece of the equation. Kirkpatrick and Locke found that charismatic speech merely increases the perception of charisma in a leader (1996, 36). This is an important distinction, but aligns with the definition of charisma at the beginning of this paper: charisma is the endowment of some exceptional quality, whether that quality is actually present or merely perceived. For many followers

of division commanders, what the leaders say publicly is their only indication of the leadership of that commander. Most Soldiers within a division will never have a personal interaction with the leader of that formation due to the hierarchical nature of United States Army divisions. For these followers, how they perceive the leader may be entirely based on what they hear in sound bites.

On the other hand, the followers who have interaction with the division commanders can collect data on the charisma of the leader based on his behaviors. Whether or not the leader challenges the status quo through innovation, empowers his followers, or provides and communicates a vision, is seen on a regular basis for these followers. The way that the division commander speaks to a crowd then, is less important to a judgment of overall charismatic qualities.

The relationship between the leader and follower, despite the power distance involved, is important to the overall effectiveness of a leader and is currently not being measured through the MSAF, the Army's leader development tool.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

All leaders effect their organizations. This research sought to discover the relationships that charismatic leaders have with their followers and organizations that may not be present with non-charismatic leaders. The correlation between the relationships with organizations and the type of leader who leads the organization is important to discovering those attributes that we seek in leaders in the Army. Although it is impossible and improper to say that charismatic leaders cause any sort of outcome, if there are outcomes that can be correlated with this attribute, it may be important to consider in the assessment and development of officers. In support of the development of officers, this research also sought to explore whether or not the Army is currently assessing a leader's charisma through attributes and behaviors measured in the MSAF.

In order to clarify the findings of this research, this chapter begins by summarizing and interpreting the findings as they relate to the primary and secondary research questions. Next, conclusions will be drawn which will seek to clarify the role of charismatic leadership in the Army leader. The limitations of the current research will then be addressed along with recommendations for future research.

The Positive Impacts

The leaders studied in this research were classified as charismatic if they communicated in a charismatic way through analysis of their public communications. In contrast, the non-charismatic leaders only displayed some of those metrics of charismatic communications, or none at all. The further qualitative analysis of these groups of leaders

and their organizations show distinct differences in the commitment of followers between the charismatic and non-charismatic leaders.

The ability of the charismatic leaders researched to innovate when faced with a problem was unique to the way in which they viewed the world. The flexibility that their forward thinking approach provides not only themselves, but also their followers, resulted in a broader range of solutions to the problems that they faced. Whether it was General (Retired) Cody's Problem, People, Parts, Plan, Tools, Time, Training (also referred to as P4T3) approach to aviation maintenance or General (Retired) Petraeus' approach to stabilizing Iraq, these leaders saw solutions where others did not (Wallace 2005, 17; Kammerdiener 2006, 5). The effect of innovation on the unit is that it distinguishes the unit amongst its peers.

While other units are reacting in the same way to the problem, the uniqueness of a different approach sets the unit apart. If that innovation ultimately produces results for the organization, their prestige is enhanced; if the innovation fails, the leader must understand how to ease that blow. By increasing both the distinctness and the prestige of the unit, a follower in the organization's self-concept gets a boost, as the unit is successful. Pair this with a salient out-group with which the followers can make a downward comparison, and the followers' esteem increases even more.

The innovative nature of the charismatic leader creates room for his subordinates to also be innovative and, if managed effectively, can lead to ever-increasing performance by the organization. One way in which the charismatic leaders were successful was in their ability to develop their vision and then communicate it to their followers. The broad way in which they viewed the problem and potential solutions

allowed the vision for the future to also be more expansive. In this way, they were able to lead others by providing intent and purpose without limiting the ability of their followers to enact creative problem solving.

In communicating this broad vision, the charismatic leaders were less concerned with their followers doing precisely as they said, and more concerned with their followers taking ownership of the process and plan. Communicating their vision for these leaders was not a matter of dictating what would be done, but of giving boundaries while simultaneously enabling abilities. By enabling abilities, the leaders included the followers in the process that increased the followers' commitment to both the organization and the goals. Additionally, as in the way charismatics speak, the broad vision increases the abstraction of the guidance, allowing the followers the opportunity to explore their own ideas about how to accomplish the end-state. When one is able to engage in the process of decision-making and feels that the input he provides is valued, his ideas receive approval and recognition and he is increasingly committed not only to the organization, but to the success of the mission, they buy-in.

The charismatic leaders studied developed those around them. Through creating room for others to participate in the development of the plan, through allowing their followers to innovate, and through empowering followers through enabling their abilities, these charismatic leaders effectively invested in the future leaders of the units. The more directive nature of the non-charismatic leaders examined allowed fewer opportunities for followers to take initiative and grow through those experiences as they were less empowered to do so.

The Negative Impacts

Looking at the myriad positive impacts of charismatic leaders, it is easy to celebrate this type of leadership, but not looking at the other side of the coin leaves an incomplete picture of this leadership style. The purpose of this research was to uncover and explore the totality of the effects of charismatic leadership in order to ensure that those who have an interest in developing leaders for an organization do not have a biased opinion about the qualities they are looking for and building in their followers. The Army is an organization which relies on people, both leaders and followers, to accomplish its missions and it is essential that those in the organization are developed holistically in order to best meet the demands faced:

> An *Army leader* is anyone who by virtue of assumed role or assigned responsibility inspires and influences people to accomplish organizational goals. Army leaders motivate people both inside and outside the chain of command to pursue actions, focus thinking and shape decisions for the greater good of the organization. (Headquarters, Department of the Army 2012, 1)

The role of an Army leader is to accomplish organizational goals. The charismatic leaders in the current study absolutely achieved the ability to inspire and influence people to accomplish organizational goals, but what is the risk when the followers identify more with the leader than with the organization. What the research uncovered was the tendency for followers of charismatic leaders to be enamored with their leader. If Command Sergeant Major Ortiz-Torres identified with Brigadier General Dempsey over the First Armored Division, social identity theory states that Command Sergeant Major Ortiz-Torres' self-concept would be tied to Brigadier General Dempsey's success as opposed to the success of 1st Armored Division. Therefore, when he stated that then Brigadier General Dempsey "deserved four stars at the time," the potential risk is that he would do

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what he could to ensure Brigadier General Dempsey's promotion to four stars at all costs, despite the goals of the 1st Armored Division or the Army (Ortiz-Torres 2006, 12). It is the responsibility of the leader in this case to ensure that the organization's missions and goals are always at the forefront of their own minds and those of their followers.

Furthermore, this commitment to the leader leads to potential pitfalls as careful analysis of the leader's performance are not routinely conducted and followers potentially support the leader through behaviors which may actually be harmful to larger objectives. One of the stated goals of the United States after the downfall of the Hussein regime was a self-governed, stable Iraq. Due in part to his ability to inspire and influence those around him, as well as his ability to clearly communicate his ideas, General Petraeus was able to push forward his plan to conduct counter-insurgency (COIN) operations through a "clear – hold – build" strategy (HQDA 2006, 5-18). His ability to influence and inspire people to follow his strategy not only led to the those he commanded pursuing his strategy, but led to the publication of a new field manual, Field Manual 3-24, for both the Army and Marine Corps.

In the years since the publication of Field Manual 3-24, *Counterinsurgency*, the COIN operations it outlines have seen limited successes, and often failures. The paradigm was built on faulty assumptions that led to the belief that military actions could lead to strategic victories. Observing the success and confidence of Major General Petraeus after his time in command of the 101st Airborne Division, and his foresight that led to him being known as the "meister of reconstruction," no one in either military or political circles could argue against his plan (Kammerdiener 2006, 5).

In the decade since the COIN manual was published, it has fallen out of favor because of the strategy's inability to accomplish the promised objectives. Karl Eikenberry, former Commanding General of the Combined Forces Command-Afghanistan and United States Ambassador to Afghanistan, stated in 2013 that those responsible for victory in both military and political circles blindly followed the COIN doctrine (Eikenberry 2013). He goes on to warn of the risk of commanders becoming "intellectually arrogant and cognitively rigid" (Eikenberry 2013).

Unlike the other charismatic leaders, Major General Petraeus did not leave room for the input of others in making decisions about the way ahead and left his subordinates with the feeling that he was the one with the right answers. Perhaps, Major General Petraeus had become intellectually arrogant and that led to others being unable to disagree with him that may have prevented a more comprehensive look at COIN doctrine. Instead, this charismatic leader was able to get others to follow his paradigm with "unquestioning zeal" which led to the suspension of "critical thought" and, ultimately, groupthink (Eikenberry 2013). While the other charismatic leaders studied in the current research were able to maintain the focus on the organization, Major General Petraeus appears to have fallen victim to his own ability to influence through a lack of self-management.

<u>Early Identification</u>

The positive attributes of charismatic leaders are analyzed using the MSAF through the competencies of "overall leadership," "leads others," "develops others" and "gets results" (HQDA 2012, 5). The promise of this is that those who effectively use this developmental tool are able to receive feedback about how their behavior impacts those

around them. They can use this information in order to further develop these behaviors so that they can continue to increase their ability to influence and inspire.

However, the negative attributes of charismatic leaders are not analyzed through the MSAF, but could be measured through the competencies "communicates," "builds trust," and "steward of profession" (HQDA 2012, 5).The results of the MSAF then, potentially bias the receiver of the feedback to take in the feedback in a positive, self-serving, light without the full picture of the potential pitfalls of this leadership style.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire shows that it is possible to measure charisma, as well as the positive and negative aspects thereof. The MSAF can build on this work for the purpose of individual development as opposed to evaluation. In this study, all charismatic leaders reached the rank of four-star general and had substantial influence over the United States Army as a result. As the Army continues to build the leaders of the future, every tool should be made available for the development of those leaders. To fail to prepare these leaders for the pitfalls they may face, because of their strengths, is a disservice to not only the officer, but to the followers and organizations they lead.

Conclusion

This research suggests that charismatic leaders have an ability to get their followers to engage by tying their identity to that of the organization through integrating the group's identity into the follower's self-concept. This identification with the group increases self-esteem as the distinctiveness and prestige of the group increases and a salient out-group is available. The research also begins to show that followers of charismatic leaders also identify with the leader. Charismatic leaders in the Army must be

diligent in redirecting that identification to the unit, as opposed to self, for both mission accomplishment and the long-term health of the Army.

When charismatic leadership is viewed solely as a product of relationships or as outcome based, it is difficult to identify charismatic leaders early in one's career before a certain level of success is attained. However, when charismatic leadership is viewed as a complex set of attributes, seen through the demonstration of certain behaviors, it is not only possible to identify charismatic leaders early in one's career, but imperative in order to capitalize on the strengths of these leaders and help mitigate the pitfalls that they may face.

One way in which the Army can seek to identify charismatic leaders early in one's career is through including this attribute in the MSAF. By including how leaders make their followers feel in the measure of leaders, the MSAF can evaluate this attribute. Doing so would allow for coaching on this attribute in order to build on the strengths and mitigate the potential risks of charisma.

Limitations of Current Research

The idea for the research was conceived through a review of both the social psychological and management literature around charismatic leadership along with constraints placed upon the author because of time and resources. The study was embarked upon with the assumption that finding speeches of division commanders in the early 2000s would be easy; this assumption proved incorrect. It is interesting to note that no United States Army agency contacted was able to produce, nor recommend another that could, speeches on these former leaders of the Army. One wonders who is maintaining the oral history of the Army when these speeches would potentially give a

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depth to the history of the Army during the attacks of 11 September 2001 and the years that follow. As a researcher, this reality was disappointing and further limited the ability to conduct a comprehensive study of the leaders included. Testing this assumption while developing the research methodology would have greatly aided in the forward progress of the research.

Because of the limited access to the speeches of these former division commanders, the research was unable to include three speeches from the commanders to cover a speech in the beginning, middle, and end of a mission or command. While it was still possible to analyze how leaders used inclusion and abstraction in their communications, it was not possible to demonstrate or analyze the pattern in how charismatics use negation throughout the span of time (Fiol, Harris, and House 1999, 468).

Additionally, the speeches analyzed were those available to the researcher, meaning not all speeches were those given while the leader examined was a division commander. In fact, most speeches analyzed were more recent. They were speeches delivered when the leaders were more senior in rank or retired. Because charisma is valued in the American culture and because charisma can be taught, it is possible that the leaders learned to speak in a more charismatic manner as they progressed up the ranks, thus making them appear more charismatic than they were in division command.

Finally, due to the small initial sample size of ten division commanders being studied, the influences of charismatic leaders could only be viewed for four leaders fitting this description. The interviews that were researched in order to get a more in-depth look at these commanders' leadership styles were not anonymous. This poses the potential risk

that a holistic view of these leaders was not communicated in the interviews for fear of repercussions if anything negative was highlighted. The complete range of potentially negative consequences of charismatic leaders could not be fully developed because of this limitation.

<div align="center">Recommendations for Future Research</div>

Although previous experimental research on charismatic leaders has been done, looking at the positive and negative long-term consequences of charismatic leaders is not something that can be done in a laboratory. This means that there will likely never be a valid way to show that charismatic leadership causes any sort of outcomes, merely that it is correlated with those outcomes. What the current research found was that there are differences in the way that the leaders studied led and communicated with their followers. However, the leaders were selected based on a point in time, not for other similarities in personality or experiences.

Future research could limit some confounding variables present in this study through limiting the effect of other personality characteristics of a group of leaders. For example, most Army officers take the Myers Briggs Type Inventory by the middle of their career. Comparing this data to get a more homogeneous group of officers to compare on charisma would allow for the differences in leadership based on charisma alone to be more isolated. This isolation may lead to a clearer understanding of the benefits and pitfalls of charismatic leadership.

Another area for future research would be to conduct surveys and/or interviews with the followers of leaders examined within a range of relationships and proximity to the leader. This inquiry would allow the researcher to classify leaders as charismatic

based on the behaviors displayed by the leader and the influences of those on the followers. Additionally, this research may show a difference in the way that charismatic leadership is perceived by followers based on proximity to the leader. The potential impacts of those who display charisma to those close to them, versus those who have only a few interactions may be different from the impacts of those whose charisma has the opposite perception.

These two potential areas for research could also be conducted together as varying personality types may be more prone to be perceived as charismatic by different spheres of their network. Perhaps the introvert displays charisma to those close to them but is less capable of drawing on that charisma in a large, unstructured setting.

Future research into the effectiveness of the MSAF can also potentially effect the development of charismatic leadership. To the author's knowledge, there is no attempt to currently measure the effectiveness of the feedback provided to the rated individual. Without an understanding of whether or not the feedback does aid in the personal or professional development of a leader, it is not possible to determine if adding the required elements to fully measure charisma would be useful moving forward.

Finally, Antonakis, Fenley, and Leichti (2011) show that charisma can be taught to leaders. Charismatic leaders are more likely to be rated positively and are more likely to emerge as senior leaders in an organization (Antonakis, Fenley, and Leichti 2011, 384). Conducting more detailed research on behaviors displayed by charismatic leaders would be useful in designing development and training for rising leaders. This research would allow charismatic leadership to be taught through professional development and could lead to enhanced positive outcomes for the Army.

APPENDIX A

LIST OF COMMUNICATIONS

Below is a list of the communications coded for this study, listed in alphabetical order by the general officers last name with the rank held at the time of the speech.

MG Buford C. Blount III – 3rd Infantry Division Commander live briefing from Iraq

GEN Richard A. Cody – Remarks to the USMA Corps of Cadets

GEN Martin E. Dempsey – Remarks at the End of Mission Ceremony in Baghdad

LTG(R) James M. Dubik – Learning from a Decade-Plus of War

LTG David D. McKiernan – Memorial Day address at Camp Eggers

LTG Raymond T. Odierno – The surge in Iraq: One year later

MG Eric T. Olson – "Deployment" in Kagan and Kubik's *Leaders in War: West Point remembers the 1991 Gulf War*

MG Joseph Peterson – DoD Press briefing with MG Joseph Peterson from the Pentagon

GEN David H. Petraeus – Assumption of command of coalition forces in Afghanistan

LTG(R) Ricardo S. Sanchez – Military Reporters and Editors Forum luncheon address

APPENDIX B

MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE CHARISMA QUESTIONS

Proud of him/her
Goes beyond self-interest
Has my respect
Displays power and confidence
Talks of values
Models ethical standards
Considers the moral/ethical
Emphasizes the collective mission
Talks optimistically
Expresses confidence
Talks enthusiastically
Arouses awareness about important issues

(Avolio, Bass, and Jung 1999, 450)

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